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COMPUTATIONAL ASPECTS OF PSEUDOSPECTRAL LAGUERRE APPROXIMATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Pseudospectral approximations in unbounded domains by Laguerre polynomials lead to ill-conditioned algorithms. We introduce a scaling function and appropriate numerical procedures in order to limit these unpleasant phenomena.

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1. Introduction

Recently, spectral methods have been successfully applied in the approximation of differential boundary value problems defined in unbounded domains. At the present, different solution techniques are available. Among these, an approach consists in using the collocation method based on the nodes of Gauss formulas related to unbounded intervals. This involves computations with orthogonal polynomials, such as Laguerre or Hermite polynomials. For details about theory and numerical experiments we refer for instance to [2], [5], [6], where, for certain classes of problems, a spectral type convergence behavior is shown. In this paper we are concerned with the implementation of these methods. In fact, computations with Laguerre or Hermite polynomials lead to ill-conditioned algorithms and undesired round-off errors instabilities, even when the degree is low. After recalling some basic properties of such polynomials, our aim is to give suggestions in order to improve the performances in practical applications.

2. Preliminary Properties and Remarks

We review some basic properties of Laguerre polynomials. Let $\alpha > -1$ be a real parameter and let $L_n^{(\alpha)}$ denote the n-degree Laguerre polynomial. For any $n \in N$, $L_n^{(\alpha)}$ is solution to the following Sturm-Liouville problem (see [8]):

$$x\frac{d^{2}}{dx^{2}}L_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) + (\alpha + 1 - x)\frac{d}{dx}L_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) + nL_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) = 0, \forall x \in]0, +\infty[,$$
 (2.1)

with the normalizing condition:

$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(0) = \binom{n+\alpha}{n} = \frac{\Gamma(n+\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)n!}.$$
 (2.2)

The determination of $L_n^{(\alpha)}$ at a given point x can be performed via the recurrence formula:

$$\begin{cases} L_0^{(\alpha)}(x) &= 1 \\ L_1^{(\alpha)}(x) &= 1 + \alpha - x \\ L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) &= \frac{1}{n}[(2n + \alpha - 1 - x)L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) - (n + \alpha - 1)L_{n-2}^{(\alpha)}(x)], \quad n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$
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This procedure has a cost proportional to n. Of course, the evaluation of $\frac{d}{dx}L_n^{(\alpha)}$ at a point

x, is given by the recurrence formula obtained by differentiating (2.3), i.e:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dx}L_0^{(\alpha)}(x) = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dx}L_1^{(\alpha)}(x) = -1 \\ \frac{d}{dx}L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = -\frac{1}{n}L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) + \frac{2n+\alpha-1-x}{n}\frac{d}{dx}L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) - \frac{n+\alpha-1}{n}\frac{d}{dx}L_{n-2}^{(\alpha)}(x), \quad n \ge 2. \end{cases}$$
Moreover, after defining the weight function $w_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = x^{\alpha}e^{-x}$ and $x \ge 1$, we have

Moreover, after defining the weight function $w^{(\alpha)}(x) = x^{\alpha}e^{-x}$, $x \in]0, +\infty[$, $\alpha > -1$, we have the orthogonality relation:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} L_n^{(\alpha)} L_m^{(\alpha)} w^{(\alpha)} dx = \delta_{nm} \frac{\Gamma(n+\alpha+1)}{n!}, n, m \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (2.5)

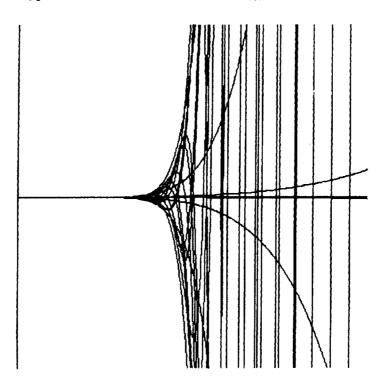


Figure 2.1 - Plot of $L_n^{(0)}$, for n = 1, 20.

As we shall see in the next, the expressions (2.3) and (2.4) are those mainly used in practical applications. Unfortunately, due to the particular structure of Laguerre polynomials, (2.3) and (2.4) are sources of numerical instabilities. A look to the plot of the first twenty polynomials (see Figure 2.1) gives an idea of the troubles one can expect. In Figure 2.1, we have $\alpha = 0$ and the plots are contained in the rectangle $[0, 70] \times [-5000000, 5000000]$. Even for small values of the degree n, it is impossible to get a reasonable picture. Relatively

small values in the first part of the abscissas interval have to be compared with very sharp oscillations in the second part. From the theoretical point of view, we can give the following asymptotic results (see [8]).

Proposition 2.1 - For any $\alpha > -1$ and $n \geq 2$ the values of the relative maxima of $e^{-x/2}x^{(\alpha+1)/2}|L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)|$ form an increasing sequence when $x > x_0$ where:

$$x_0 = 0 \text{ if } \alpha^2 \le 1, \quad x_0 = \frac{\alpha^2 - 1}{2n + \alpha + 1} \quad \text{if } \alpha > 1.$$

Proposition 2.2 - For any $\alpha > -1$ and $x_0 > 0$, we can find a constant C > 0 such that:

$$\max_{x \in]x_0, +\infty[} |e^{-x/2} x^{(\alpha+1)/2} L_n^{(2)}(x)| \approx C n^{1/6} n^{\alpha/2}.$$
 (2.6)

From the previous statements one concludes that, even when multiplied by a decaying exponential, Laguerre polynomials are not easy to keep under control. We will analyze in the next section more about this subject.

Similar properties to those presented above are satisfied by the family of Hermite polynomials. According to [8], the n^{th} degree Hermite polynomial H_n is defined to be a solution of the differential equation:

$$H_n''(x) - 2xH_n'(x) + 2nH_n(x) = 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$
(2.7)

with the conditions:

$$H_n(0) = (-1)^{n/2} \frac{n!}{(n/2)!}$$
 if *n* is even, (2.8)

$$H'_n(0) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2} \frac{(n+1)!}{((n+1)/2)!} \quad \text{if } n \text{ is odd.}$$
 (2.9)

Again we have a recurrence formula, namely:

$$\begin{cases}
H_0(x) = 1 \\
H_1(x) = 2x \\
H_n(x) = 2xH_{n-1}(x) - 2(n-1)H_{n-2}(x), & n \ge 2.
\end{cases}$$
(2.10)

Orthogonality is also achieved in view of the next expression:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_n(x) H_m(x) e^{-x^2} dx = \delta_{nm} \sqrt{\pi} 2^n n!, \quad n, m \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (2.11)

Considerations similar to those previously discussed, concerning the implementation of formula (2.10), also hold. Actually, the two families are closely related by the following equalities:

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^{n/2} 2^n (n/2)! L_{n/2}^{(-1/2)}(x^2), \text{ if } n \text{ is even,}$$
 (2.12)

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2} 2^n ((n-1)/2)! x L_{(n-1)/2}^{(1/2)}(x^2), \text{ if } n \text{ is odd.}$$
 (2.13)

3. Scaled Laguerre Functions

As we noticed in Section 2, the determination of $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$ for a given x, brings to an ill-conditioned algorithm. According to Propositions 2.1 and 2.2, we can try a first experiment. Instead of computing $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$, we could evaluate $\tilde{L}_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = e^{-x/2} L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$. This can be done by just modifying the first two terms of (2.3) by setting $\tilde{L}_0^{(\alpha)}(x) = e^{-x/2}$ and $\tilde{L}_1^{(\alpha)}(x) = (1 + \alpha - x)e^{-x/2}$. In this way, when x is large we can avoid overflow errors. The plots of $\tilde{L}_n^{(\alpha)}$ for $\alpha = 0$ and n = 1, 20 are given in Figure 3.1. This time they are all included in the rectangle $[0, 70] \times [-1, 1]$.

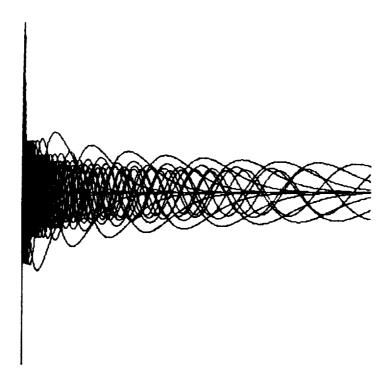


Figure 3.1 - Plot of $\tilde{L}_{n}^{(0)}$, for n = 1, 20.

Nevertheless, the new recurrence formula is still ill-conditioned. In fact, when x is large, the determination of $\tilde{L}_0^{(\alpha)}(x)$ gives rise to underflow problems. Our goal is to find a more suitable scaling function. In order to be really effective, this function, denoted by $S_n(x)$, has to actually depend on both x and n. Then, we would like to define:

$$\hat{L}_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) = S_{n}(x)L_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x), \quad n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in]0, +\infty[. \tag{3.1}$$

We can try first by setting: $S_n(x) = \left(1 + \frac{x}{2n}\right)^{-n}$, $n \ge 1$. In this way, for any fixed n, S_n^{-1} behaves like a polynomial and, for any fixed x, we have $\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n(x) = e^{-x/2}$. After such a scaling, computations seem to be more flexible. An appropriate recursive formula can be written for $\hat{L}_n^{(\alpha)}$. Unfortunately, one can check that, with this choice of S_n , the cost for implementing the formula is proportional to n^2 .

Therefore we suggest another scaling function, i.e.

$$S_n(x) = \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} n+\alpha \\ n \end{array} \right) \prod_{k=1}^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{4k} \right) \right]^{-1}, \quad n \ge 1, \tag{3.2}$$

and we take $S_0(x) = 1$. Thus we obtain the following formula:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{L}_{0}^{(\alpha)}(x) = 1 \\ \hat{L}_{1}^{(\alpha)}(x) = \frac{4(\alpha+1-x)}{(\alpha+1)(x+4)} \\ \hat{L}_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) = \frac{4n}{(n+\alpha)(4n+x)} [(2n+\alpha-1-x)\hat{L}_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) - \frac{4(n-1)^{2}}{4n+x-4}\hat{L}_{n-2}^{(\alpha)}(x)], n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$
(3.3)

From (3.3) we can obtain the value of $\hat{L}_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$ at a given x, with a cost proportional to n. In the next, we shall refer to $\hat{L}_n^{(\alpha)}$, obtained by (3.1) with the help of (3.2), as scaled Laguerre functions.

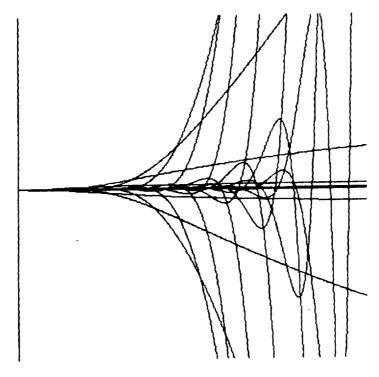


Figure 3.2 - Plot of $\hat{L}_{n}^{(0)}$, for n = 1, 20.

It is clear that these are not polynomials. Their structure is more appealing for numerical tests. The plot of the first twenty scaled Laguerre functions (with $\alpha = 0$) is given in Figure 3.2. Now all the plots are included in the rectangle $[0,70] \times [-500,500]$. The computational range is reduced. We make clear this fact by a numerical experiment. In the first column of Table 3.1 we give the values of $|L_2^{(0)}(x)/L_{40}^{(0)}(x)|$ for various x. There is a difference of 13 digits between the highest and the lowest value. In the second column of Table 3.2, we report $|\hat{L}_{2}^{(0)}(x)/\hat{L}_{40}^{(0)}(x)|$. Now the width is reduced to 5 digits.

х	Column 1	Column 2
10	7.273E-00	3.129E + 03
20	1.779E-00	1.035E + 05
30	1.607E-03	6.215E + 03
40	2.405E-05	3.743E + 03
50	1.954E-07	8.379E + 02
60	1.786E-09	1.554E + 02
70	1.638E-11	2.285E + 01
80	2.187E-13	4.015E + 00

Table 3.1 - Comparison between Laguerre polynomials and scaled Laguerre functions.

We remark that $\hat{L}_{n}^{(\alpha)}(0) = 1$, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. For convenience we also give the formula to compute the derivatives, i.e.:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dx}\hat{L}_{0}^{(\alpha)}(x) &= 0 \\ \frac{d}{dx}\hat{L}_{1}^{(\alpha)}(x) &= -\frac{4}{(x+4)^{2}}\frac{\alpha+5}{\alpha+1} \\ \frac{d}{dx}\hat{L}_{n}^{(\alpha)}(x) &= \frac{4n}{(n+\alpha)(4n+x)}\left[(2n+\alpha-1-x)\frac{d}{dx}\hat{L}_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) - \frac{6n+\alpha-1}{4n+x}\hat{L}_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{4(n-1)^{2}}{4n+x-4}\left(\frac{2(4n+x-2)}{(4n+x)(4n+x-4)}\hat{L}_{n-2}^{(\alpha)}(x) - \frac{d}{dx}\hat{L}_{n-2}^{(\alpha)}(x)\right)\right], \quad n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$
will see in the next section how to apply the scaled functions to pseudospectral compuons

We will see in the next section how to apply the scaled functions to pseudospectral computations.

4. Numerical Integration

Let $N \geq 1$ be an integer. Let us define $\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)}$, k = 1, ..., N to be zeroes of $L_N^{(\alpha)}$, $\alpha > -1$. It can be shown that $\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)} > 0$, k = 1, ..., N. Then define the weights:

$$w_{k,n}^{(\alpha)} = \frac{\Gamma(N+\alpha+1)\eta_{k,n}^{(\alpha)}}{(N+1)![(N+1)L_{N+1}^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)})]^2}, k=1,\ldots,N.$$
(4.1)

The following quadrature formula is known (see for instance [8]):

$$\int_0^{+\infty} f w^{(\alpha)} dx = \sum_{k=1}^N f(\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)}) w_{k,N}^{(\alpha)} + \frac{\Gamma(N+\alpha+1)}{N!(2N)!} f^{(2N)}(\xi), \tag{4.2}$$

where $0 < \xi < +\infty$. In particular, the second term on the right hand side vanishes when f is a polynomial of degree at most 2N-1. For convenience, we shall set $\eta_k = \eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)}$ and $w_k = w_{k,N}^{(\alpha)}$. We are concerned with the numerical evaluation of η_k and w_k , k = 1, ..., N. An approximation of the zeroes of $L_N^{(\alpha)}$ can be obtained by the following procedure (see [7] and [8]). We first define y_k , k = 1, ..., N to be solutions of the equations.

$$y_k - \sin y_k = 2\pi \frac{N - k + 3/4}{2N + \alpha + 1}, \quad k = 1, \dots, N.$$
 (4.3)

Afterwards we set $z_k = [\cos(\frac{1}{2}y_k)]^2$, k = 1, ..., N, and finally we get:

$$\eta_k \approx 2(2N + \alpha + 1)z_k + -\frac{1}{6(2N + \alpha + 1)} \left[\frac{5}{4(1 - z_k)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - z_k} - 1 + 3\alpha^2 \right].$$
(4.4)

Starting from this approximated value for η_k , we can refine it by very few iterations of the Newton method. The computed zeroes are in general very accurate. However, evaluating $L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)})$ and $\frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{k,N}^{(\alpha)})$, $k=1,\ldots,N$, in order to use the Newton method, may give problems when performed by (2.3) and (2.4). Nevertheless, since the zeroes of $L_N^{(\alpha)}$ are the same than the zeroes of $\hat{L}_N^{(\alpha)}$, we can use (3.3) and (3.4). This allows the determination of the zeroes for larger values of N. Concerning the weights, they are decreasing and converging to zero very fast. It is convenient to define other weights as follows (recall (3.2)):

$$\hat{w}_{k,N}^{(\alpha)} = \hat{w}_k = \frac{w_k}{[S_N(\eta_k)]^2} = \frac{\Gamma(N+\alpha+1)\eta_k}{(N+1)!\Gamma^2(\alpha+1)} \left[\frac{4(N+1)}{(N+\alpha+1)(4N+4+\eta_k)\hat{L}_{N+1}^{(\alpha)}(\eta_k)} \right]^2.$$
(4.5)

The new weights are in the machine range for larger values of N. Of course, one has to write:

$$\frac{\Gamma(N+\alpha+1)}{(N+1)!} = \frac{N+\alpha}{N+1} \left(\frac{N+\alpha-1}{N} \left(\cdots \left(\frac{\alpha+1}{2} \right) \cdots \right) \right) \Gamma(\alpha+1), \tag{4.6}$$

obtaining a more reliable algorithm.

If p is a polynomial of degree at most 2N-1, from (4.2) and (4.5) we obtain:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} pw^{(\alpha)} dx = \sum_{k=1}^N [p(\eta_k) S_N^2(\eta_k)] \hat{w}_k. \tag{4.7}$$

Moreover, if u_N is a polynomial of degree at most N, we have:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} u_N^2 w^{(\alpha)} dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^N [(u_N S_N)(\eta_k)]^2 \hat{w}_k. \tag{4.8}$$

This suggests to work with $u_N S_N$ instead than u_N when approximating the solution of a differential equation by the collocation method based on Laguerre polynomials. We analyze in the next section in which way this can be actually done.

5. Pseudospectral Laguerre Approximations

Let us focus our attention on a very simple equation, namely:

$$\begin{cases}
-U_{xx} + \lambda U &= f \text{ in }]0 + \infty[, \lambda > 0, \\
U(0) &= \gamma \epsilon \mathbf{R}, \\
\lim_{x \to +\infty} U(x) &= 0.
\end{cases}$$
(5.1)

Under suitable assumptions on f and λ , one can prove that there exists a unique solution of (5.1) (see [2]). For approximations with Laguerre polynomials we require for U an exponential decay at infinity. By setting $V = Ue^x$, problem (5.1) becomes:

$$\begin{cases}
-V_{xx} + 2V_x + (\lambda - 1)V = g \text{ in }]0, +\infty[, \\
V(0) = \gamma,
\end{cases}$$
(5.2)

where $g = fe^x$.

Keeping the same notations of the previous section, let η_k , k = 1, ..., N be the zeroes of $L_N^{(\alpha)}$. Then the solution of (5.2) is approximated by a polynomial v_N of degree less or equal N satisfying the collocation problem:

$$\begin{cases}
-v_{N,xx}(\eta_k) + 2v_{N,x}(\eta_k) + (\lambda - 1)v_N(\eta_k) = g(\eta_k), & k = 1, \dots, N, \\
v_N(0) = \gamma.
\end{cases} (5.3)$$

As usual (see [1] and [4]), (5.3) is equivalent to an appropriate linear system whose unknowns are $v_N(\eta_k)$, k = 1, ..., N. When N tends to infinity, v_N converges to V in a suitable weighted Sobolev space (see [2]).

The basic tool for computations is the derivative operator D_N in the space of polynomials of degree N. With the aim of getting the entries d_{ij} , i, j = 0, ..., N of D_N , we consider the Lagrange polynomials with respect to the nodes η_k , k = 0, ..., N where we defined $\eta_0 = 0$). These are given by:

$$l_{j}(x) = \frac{x L_{N}^{(\alpha)}(x)}{\eta_{j} \left[\frac{d}{dx} L_{N}^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{j}) \right]} \quad \frac{1}{x - \eta_{j}}, \quad j = 1, \dots, N,$$
 (5.4)

$$l_0(x) = \frac{L_N^{(\alpha)}(x)}{L_N^{(\alpha)}(0)}. (5.5)$$

The l_j 's are polynomials of degree N. Then we have

$$d_{ij} = l'_{i}(\eta_{i}) \quad i, j = 0, \dots, N.$$
 (5.6)

Moreover for any polynomial p of degree at most N, one gets:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N} d_{ij} p(\eta_j) = p'(\eta_i), \quad i = 0, \dots, N.$$
 (5.7)

The following useful relations can be recovered from (2.1):

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j) = \frac{\eta_j - \alpha - 1}{\eta_j} \frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, N,$$
 (5.8)

$$\frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(0) = -\frac{N}{\alpha + 1}L_N^{(\alpha)}(0), \tag{5.9}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}L_N^{(\alpha)}(0) = \frac{N(N-1)}{(\alpha+1)(\alpha+2)}L_N^{(\alpha)}(0), \tag{5.10}$$

$$\frac{d^3}{dx^3}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j) = \left[\frac{(\eta_j - \alpha - 2)(\eta_j - \alpha + 1)}{\eta_j^2} - \frac{N - 1}{\eta_j}\right] \frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, N. \quad (5.11)$$

Thus, with the help of (5.8) - (5.11), one gets:

$$d_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{\eta_i \frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta i)}{\eta_j \frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j)} \frac{1}{\eta_i - \eta_j} & i, j = 1, \dots, N, i \neq j, \\ \frac{1 - \alpha + \eta_i}{2\eta_i} & i = j = 1, \dots, N, \\ \frac{\frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_i)}{L_N^{(\alpha)}(0)} & i = 1, \dots, N, j = 0, \\ -\frac{L_N^{(\alpha)}(0)}{\eta_j^2 \frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j)} & j = 1, \dots, N, i = 0, \\ -\frac{N}{\alpha + 1} & i = j = 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(5.12)$$

The second derivative operator is obtained either by squaring D_N either by evaluating $l_j''(\eta_i)$. In the last case, recalling (5.8) - (5.11), we have:

he last case, recalling (5.8) - (5.11), we have:
$$\begin{cases}
\frac{\frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_i)}{\eta_j \frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j)} \frac{(1-\alpha+\eta_i)(\eta_i-\eta_j)-2\eta_i}{(\eta_i-\eta_j)^2} & i,j=1,\ldots,N, i \neq j, \\
\frac{(\eta_i-\alpha)^2}{3\eta_i^2} - \frac{N-1}{3\eta_i} & i=j=1,\ldots,N, \\
-\frac{\alpha+1-\eta_i}{\eta_i} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_i)}{L_N^{(\alpha)}(0)} & i=1,\ldots,N, j=0, \\
-\frac{2(N+\alpha+1)}{\eta_j^3(\alpha+1)} \frac{L_N^{(\alpha)}(0)}{\frac{d}{dx}L_N^{(\alpha)}(\eta_j)} & j=1,\ldots,N, i=0, \\
\frac{N(N-1)}{(\alpha+1)(\alpha+2)} & i=j=0.
\end{cases} (5.13)$$

After taking into account the boundary conditions, we end up with the matrix corresponding to the linear system (5.3).

As pointed out in the previous section, Laguerre polynomials are not suitable for computations. However we can use scaled Laguerre functions. Therefore, we define $\hat{v}_k = v_N(\eta_k)S_N(\eta_k)$, $k = 0, \ldots, N$. The \hat{v}_k 's will be the new unknowns. Besides, we define a new matrix $\hat{D}_N = \{\hat{d}_{ij}\}$ as follows:

$$\hat{d}_{ij} = d_{ij} \frac{S_N(\eta_i)}{S_N(\eta_j)}, \quad i, j = 0, \dots, N.$$
 (5.14)

Due to (5.7) we have:

$$S_N(\eta_i)v_N'(\eta_i) = S_N(\eta_i)\sum_{j=0}^N d_{ij}v_N(\eta_j) = \sum_{j=0}^N \hat{d}_{ij}\hat{v}_j, \quad i = 0, \dots, N.$$
 (5.15)

Similar relations hold for higher order derivatives. Thus, by multiplying the equations in (5.3) by $S_N(\eta_k)$, k = 0, ..., N we can easily obtain a new linear system in the unknowns \hat{v}_j , j = 0, ..., N, involving the knowledge of the coefficients \hat{d}_{ij} instead than d_{ij} . The \hat{d}_{ij} 's are less affected by ill-conditioning problems, since they are related to scaled Laguerre functions. In fact, we observe that:

$$S_N \frac{d}{dx} L_N^{(\alpha)} = \frac{d}{dx} \hat{L}_N^{(\alpha)} + \hat{L}_N^{(\alpha)} S_N \frac{d}{dx} (S_N^{-1}).$$
 (5.16)

Moreover:

$$\left[S_N \frac{d}{dx} (S_N^{-1})\right](x) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{4k+x}.$$
 (5.17)

Finally, we define:

$$Q_{i} = \frac{d}{dx} \hat{L}_{N}^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{i}) + \hat{L}_{N}^{(\alpha)}(\eta_{i}) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1}{4k + \zeta_{i}}, \quad i = 0, \dots N.$$
 (5.18)

Therefore, by substituting in (5.12), one gets:

$$\hat{d}_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{\eta_{i}Q_{i}}{\eta_{j}Q_{j}} \frac{1}{\eta_{i} - \eta_{j}} & i, j = 1, \dots, N, i \neq j, \\ \frac{1 - \alpha + \eta_{i}}{2\eta_{i}} & i = j = 1, \dots, N, \\ Q_{i} & i = 1, \dots, N, j = 0, \\ \frac{-1}{\eta_{j}^{2}Q_{j}} & j = 1, \dots, N, i = 0, \\ \frac{-N}{\alpha + 1} & i = j = 0. \end{cases}$$
(5.19)

We can argue similarly for the second derivative matrix. After solving the new preconditioned system we obtain \hat{v}_j , j = 1, ..., N. After this, one can recover the values $v_n(\eta_j)$, j = 1, ..., N, which are in general very large, when j is close to N. On the other hand, these values are associated to the weight w_j that is negligible when j is close to N. Nevertheless, we remark that in order to evaluate the weighted norm of v_N , one does not need to know its values at the collocation nodes. Actually, recalling (4.8) we have:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} v_N^2 w^{(\alpha)} dx \approx \sum_{j=1}^N \hat{v}_j^2 \hat{w}_j.$$
 (5.20)

The right-hand side of (5.19) is now more suitable for computations. The procedure here described can be clearly generalized to other kinds of problems.

6. Hermite Approximations

All we developed above for Laguerre polynomials can be extended to cover the case of Hermite polynomials. In analogy with (2.12) and (2.13), it is convenient to define the scaled Hermite functions as follows:

$$\hat{H}_n(x) = \hat{L}_{n/2}^{(-1/2)}(x^2), \text{ if } n \text{ is even,}$$
 (6.1)

$$\hat{H}_n(x) = x \hat{L}_{(n-1)/2}^{(1/2)}(x^2), \text{ if } n \text{ is odd.}$$
 (6.2)

In particular, we obtain:

$$\hat{H}_n(0) = 1, \quad \text{if } n \text{ is even}, \tag{6.3}$$

$$\hat{H}'_{n}(0) = 1$$
, if *n* is odd. (6.4)

The derivative matrices for the Hermite case have been presented in [3]. These matrices can be suitably preconditioned when using scaled Hermite functions. As before, the scaling procedure we adopt, is only to be considered as a trick to perform computations in a better way. Theoretical analysis and convergence estimates remain the same, since the collocation scheme is not actually modified. Of course, improvements could be expected when adopting other functions S_n in place of (3.2).

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